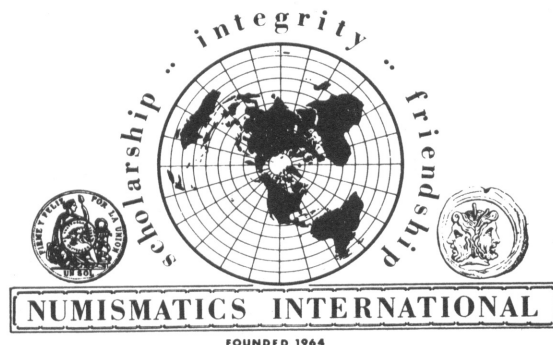
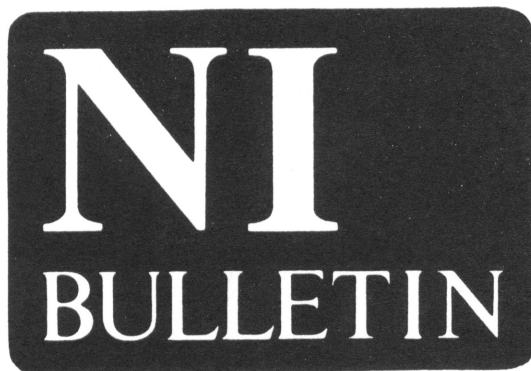


38 years of service to numismatics



MARCH 2003

Volume 38 Number 3 ISSN: 0197-3088 Price Two Dollars

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INSIDE N.I.

MEMBERSHIP CHAIRMAN'S REPORT

March 2003 Applications for Membership: The following persons have applied for membership. If no written objections are received by May 1, 2003, their membership will become effective on that date.

2644-MT Mark A. Lyons, 3322 Center St., P. O. Box 102, Livonia Center, New York 14488 – (Asia, Chinese, Korean and German Talers)

2645-MT John Isles, 11105 Tremont Lane, Plymouth, Michigan 48170-6149
(Byzantine and Old Asian)



DONATIONS REPORT

We have received the following donation since the last report:

<u>Name</u>	<u>Donation</u>	<u>Preference of Use</u>
CARSON, Christopher	\$10.00 Cash	Educational Programs
CARSON, Christopher	\$5.00 Cash	NI Library Fund
CARSON, Christopher	\$5.00 Cash	NI Reference Collection
CARSON, Christopher	\$5.00 Cash	General Operating Fund



NI EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

The American Numismatic Association Money Show will be held from March 20th to the 22nd, 2003 in the Charlotte Convention Center at 501 South College Street, Charlotte, NC. There will be a combined NI/IBNS Meeting at this show with Howard A Daniel III as moderator of a show and tell on Saturday, March 22nd. Please bring something from your collection or a significant purchase at the convention to talk about for a few minutes. Howard will also be manning a table at the show for you to meet other NI members, rest for a while, or leave messages. Please contact Howard at Howard@SEAsianTreasury.com if you plan to attend and he will give you the meeting time and room number after it is given to him, or you can find it in the show program which you can pickup at the registration table. If you want more information about the show, please contact the ANA Convention Department at "ANACvn@money.org".

FROM THE MAILBOX

Numismatic Calendars question mark answered on Ethiopia

Ron Herneshen's table of Numismatic Calendars (*NI Bulletin*, January 2003, p.24-25), the one question mark I can fill in is that the starting point event for the Ethiopian Era is also the birth of Christ – which the Ethiopian Coptic Church calculated to have occurred in Common Era 8.

Greg Franck-Weiby
Silverton, Oregon

SAINTE MARIE DU DÉSERT

Bob Forrest, Manchester, England, NI #2382

The silvered brass medal shown 1½ times actual size in Fig. 1 looks at first like it might relate to a shrine in somewhere like French North Africa, for its obverse depicts



Fig. 1

"Sainte Marie du Désert". But this is not the case, for the Cistercian abbey of Saint Marie du Désert, to which it relates, is near Bellegarde Sainte Marie, near Toulouse, in France itself. The epithet "du Désert" does not here refer to a desert but (probably) to what was once an isolated and deserted place in the vicinity of the present-day abbey where, in the twelfth century, there lived a hermit. The statue depicted on the obverse of the medal was made in Paris in 1822 and represents the Virgin Mary in her role as Our Lady of Victories, a popular image of her at that time. The medal, however, must have been made between 1853 and 1874, the former date being that of the foundation of the abbey, and the latter the date at which the statue on the medal was replaced by another, of the Virgin of the Assumption. It is this later statue of the Virgin which is depicted on the obverse of the bronze medal shown 1½ times actual size in Fig. 2, and which looks to be of later 19th century date.



Fig. 2

The reverse of both medals represents St. Bernard of Clairvaux (1090-1153), a Doctor of the Church (hence his book and quill pen) and founder of the Cistercian Order to which the abbey of Sainte Marie du Désert belongs.

(This short write-up is based on information obtained partly from the web-site of the abbey at www.chez.com/abbayesaintemarienedudesert but mainly from personal correspondence with their archivist, F. Robert, to whom my thanks are due.)

SIEGE NOTES – WINDOWS TO THE PAST

PART II

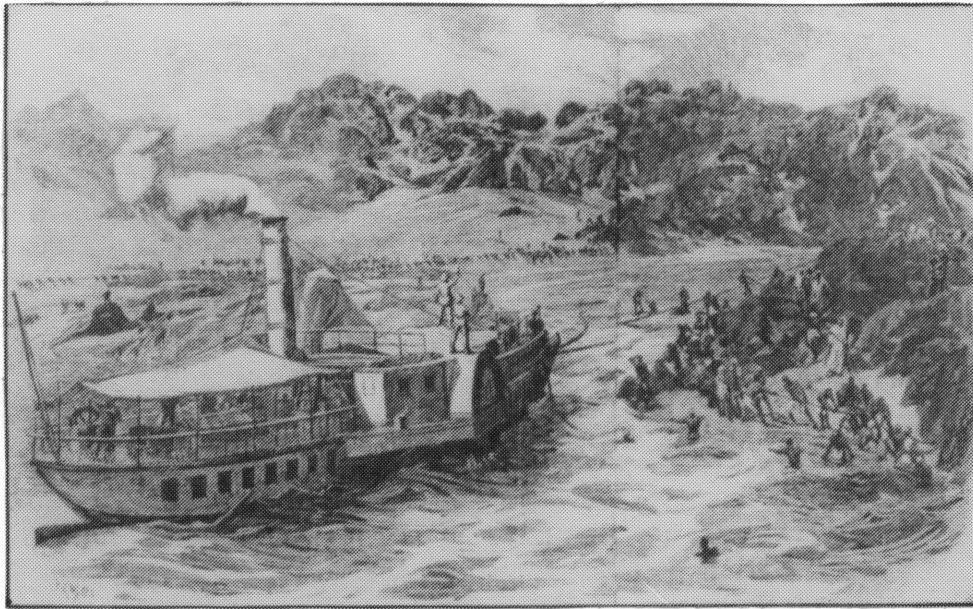
John E. Sandrock, NI #2383

The Siege of Khartoum

After the completion of the Suez Canal in Egypt, the British found themselves more and more drawn into Egyptian affairs. Gradually they completed the conquest of the upper Nile valley concentrating their efforts on the suppression of the Arab slave trade in the Sudan. At that time much anti-foreign unrest existed in Egypt. This agitation was directed toward outright nationalism. Because of this and to protect their interests, the British were forced to occupy Cairo, setting up a British dominated Egyptian government there. By 1883 outright opposition to this arrangement had taken root. The leader of this hostility was a desert warrior-prophet calling himself the Mahdi (the Long-Expected One). After completely wiping out an Egyptian-led force of 1700 men at El Obeid south of Khartoum on November 5, 1883, the Mahdi organized a great religious movement throughout the Sudan aimed at overthrowing the nefarious Egyptian rule. A vigorous offensive was directed at the Red Sea ports until, one by one, the Sudanese provinces succumbed to the Mahdi's forces.

The British government, opposed to further colonial adventures and seeking to avoid further humiliation, advised a reluctant Egyptian government to evacuate their subjects from Khartoum and to abandon the Sudan. On January 18, 1884 Major General Charles Gordon was ordered to the Sudan to oversee the evacuation of the Egyptian garrisons. The man sent to do the job was none other than "Chinese" Gordon of Taiping Rebellion fame. While in China he had voluntarily led an international force known as the "Ever Victorious Army" which saved Shanghai and the foreigners there from annihilation at the hands of the Taiping rebels.

Seven river steamers were available to send upriver to the aid of Khartoum. This plan of evacuation sounded good, but was something else when actually put into practice. For one thing, the upper Nile was largely uncharted. Another obstacle was the river cataracts which made navigation difficult and dangerous. Some of these were only passable in both directions from April to September. The second, third and fourth cataracts presented the greatest obstacle to upstream traffic, as these were negotiable only with the aid of hundreds of men on towropes. A plan was worked out which called for evacuation by steamer downriver from Khartoum to Abu Hamid, then overland by camel to Korosko and thence down the Nile to Cairo. By this route the perilous cataracts could be avoided, as well as the hostile tribes along the banks of the Nile. This plan also saved time by not taking the circuitous river bends between the two towns. It was estimated it would take eleven roundtrips using three of the seven boats to accomplish the evacuation of all who chose to leave the garrison. Each steamer could carry 500 persons and an additional load in two native boats towed behind. In this manner 1700 people could be accommodated per trip downriver. The remaining steamers were used for close protection below Khartoum, making sorties to break up enemy concentrations and to capture cattle to augment the garrison's food supply. For this purpose the steamers were converted into small warships with the addition of Krupp breech-loading cannon.



An armed river steamer being towed upriver over the Second Cataract.

At first all went well until the Mahdi's army gathered strength cutting off the river escape route. Gordon soon found himself surrounded and besieged in Khartoum.

Gordon was no stranger to the Sudan, having served there as Governor General from 1877 to 1880. At this time the influence of the Ottoman Empire in the region was fading, while that of Great Britain was ascending. The Expected One and his followers found themselves on a collision course with this new superpower, the *de facto* administrator of Egyptian affairs.

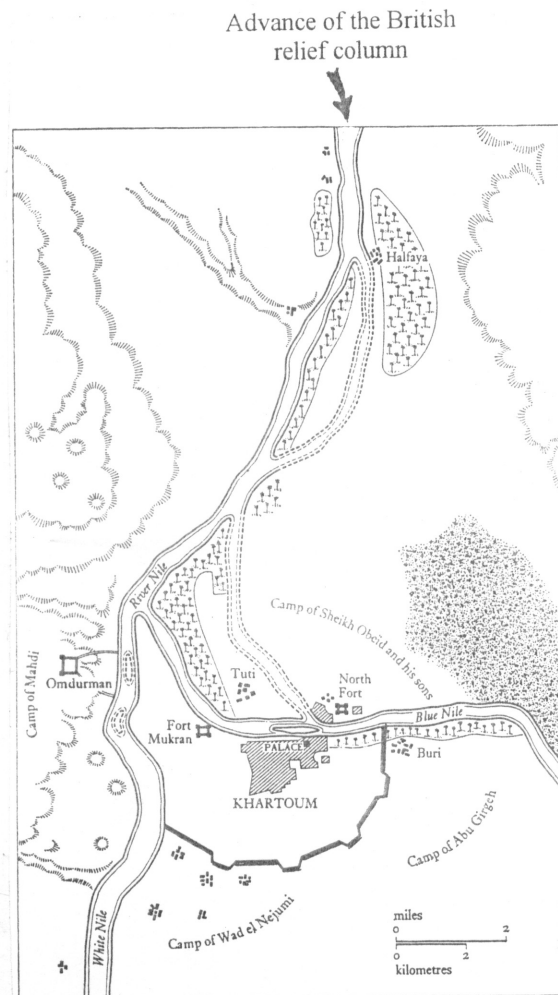
Khartoum, the principal market town of the region, lay at the confluence of the White and Blue Nile rivers some 1750 miles upriver from Cairo. It was the seat of Egyptian authority in the Sudan. When Gordon arrived at the garrison there, he found himself an unwilling participant in a holy war. Discovering that the loyalty of the Egyptian troops he commanded was at best neutral, and therefore useless to him, Gordon requested immediate assistance from the British government. He requested that a slave trader named Zubeir Pasha be sent from Cairo to assist in negotiations with the Mahdi. The government hesitated. Gordon then asked for British regulars to reinforce the Khartoum garrison. Nothing happened. Finally, in exasperation, he resigned his commission. His resignation was refused. Instead of rendering assistance Parliament told him to save himself while he still maintained control of the Nile and to abandon Khartoum and its citizens to their fate. This Gordon refused to do.

Realizing that he was on his own, Gordon began by strengthening the garrison's defenses, relying on self-preservation as an incentive for the Egyptian troops to cooperate. As he worked on the new defenses, one outlying garrison town after another fell to the Mahdi's army. On March 15, 1884 the Mahdi arrived before Khartoum, cutting the only remaining telegraph wire to civilization. The siege of Khartoum had begun.

Meanwhile the British government endlessly debated Gordon's fate. Time after time proposed courses of action were delayed. Gordon's position was becoming

increasingly perilous. Belatedly realizing that something must be done, Parliament authorized the "Gordon Relief Expedition". The generals, however, could not decide on the best plan of action. Some favored an overland approach through the desert, while others favored using the Nile. Their positions atrophied and more time was lost. The squabbling lasted for several months. In the end both sides had their way, settling on both a desert and river approach. While Gordon remained within the city walls, the British cavalry was transformed into a camel corps, and British regulars were augmented by men from Canada, knowledgeable in the art of riverboat navigation.

The relief expedition was headed by British General Wolsely, a close friend of Gordon. Arriving at Wadi Halfa on the upper Nile with his first batch of double-ended whaleboats on October 14, 1884 he immediately set out to relieve the siege. These large craft could carry a 12,000 pound load and a crew of ten. It took many weeks to bring the boats up through the second cataract on the Nile. By Christmas day 800 men had ascended the river as far as Korti some 400 miles below Khartoum.



The siege of Khartoum, showing Gordon's defensive position between the White and Blue Nile.

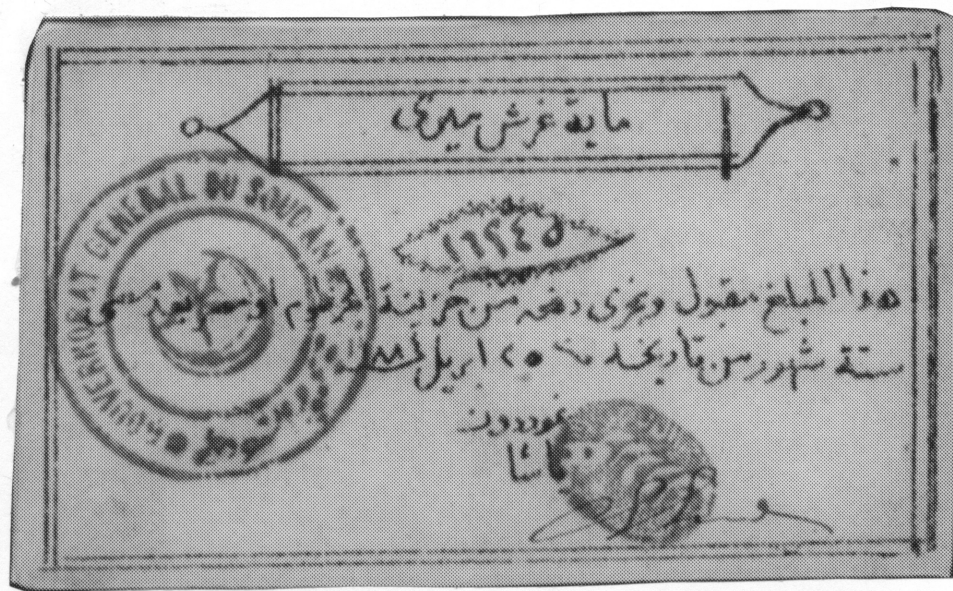
Meanwhile Gordon continued his preparations for a protracted siege. He had at his disposal the four river steamers, which had been sent upriver before the siege. These he used to maintain communications downriver, running the gauntlet of the Mahdi's army which was sniping at them from the banks of the Nile. Messages could be

smuggled in and out, but there was no way to know whether or not they would get through.

It was not long before his government letter-of-credit was exhausted leaving him with no way to pay his troops. A desperate shortage of cash existed due to hoarding; and the money, which had been sent from Cairo had not arrived. To guarantee their loyalty, Gordon reasoned, the troops must be paid. To solve this problem a lithographic press was set up to print serially numbered currency notes in denominations ranging from 1 to 5000 piastres. Later some notes of £50 were produced. A total of 91,700 banknotes were printed. Their aggregate worth was £168,500. The first 50,000 notes issued were signed by Gordon himself, a horrendous effort considering the time involved and the heat of central Africa. Later on, a rudimentary technique was developed wherein the notes could be signed hectographically. The early difficulty in getting the troops and merchants to accept the notes was soon overcome, to the extent that they were soon being counterfeited!

Stating that he was personally responsible for the liquidation of the siege notes, Gordon invited anyone to bring action against him in a civil capacity to recover their money. Controversy surrounding their redemption lasted for several years after Gordon's massacre at the hands of the Mahdi.

All notes were dated April 24, 1884 in Arabic. Denominations issued were 1, 5, 10, 20, 100, 500, 1000, 2000, 2500 and 5000 piastres. Khartoum siege notes are difficult to identify, as there are no written denominations on the notes themselves. Identification can only be made by studying the design beneath the Arabic rectangle caption at the top of each note. Here are found various geometric forms, each representing a different denomination. These include circles, ovals, rectangles, half



Khartoum siege notes are difficult to identify, as there are no written denominations on the notes themselves. Identification can be made by studying the design beneath the rectangular Arabic caption at the top of the note. Here are found various geometric forms, each representing a different denomination. These include circles, ovals, rectangles, half moons and diamond shapes. Shown here is the 100 piastre note, the denomination portrayed as an elongated oval of jagged lines and dots. This note is signed by General Gordon in his own hand, and is also authenticated with his Arabic signature seal.

moons and diamond shapes. The notes carry the hand-stamp of the "Gouvernorat General du Soudan" in English and in Arabic, together with Gordon's Arabic signature seal. The author has in his collection a 100 piastre note with a violet oval hand-stamp on the reverse placed there by one Titto Figari, "Avocat a la Cour" (Barrister of the Court) at Le Caire which lends credence to the theory that court actions did, in fact, follow the siege.



Siege note in the amount of 2,500 piastres (half moon pointing upwards) with the seal of the "Gouvernorat General du Soudan" and a hectographic machine copy of Gordon's signature with seal.

General Gordon kept a diary while under siege which has survived. It makes fascinating reading, portraying vividly the portending doom. A few select excerpts follow:

December 3: "This morning the Arabs fired eight rounds at us. Twenty shells fell in town yesterday, but none did any harm." ... "5PM: Artillery duel going on between our two guns and the Arab gun; our practice is very bad."... "7PM: Another battle! (the third today). The Arabs came down the river and fired on the Palace. 7:10PM: battle over, we are as we were, minus some cartridges." December 4: "Was at Omdurman Fort all night. They had a man wounded yesterday. The Arabs at Goba are quiet after their exertions of yesterday"... "I tried to entice the Arabs at Goba into fighting this evening, but they would not be drawn. They only replied with two shells, which fell into the river." December 5: "We are going to make an attempt to relieve Omdurman Fort (really things are looking very black). The men who came in say the Mahdi is short of ammunition."... "A soldier deserted today to the Arabs. I have almost given up the idea of saving the town; it is a last resort, this attempt we make to open the route to Omdurman Fort." December 6: "The steamers went down and fired on the Arabs at Omdurman"... "We have £150 in cash left in the treasury."... "In the affair today we had three killed and thirty-six wounded in the steamers, the Arabs came down in good force." December 7: "The 270th day of our imprisonment."... "It is rumored the cock turkey (Mahdi) has killed one of his companions, reason not known (probably some harem infidelity)."... "A

soldier escaped from the Arabs and came in; he says the Expeditionary Force has captured Berber and is approaching.”... “In the *Ismalia* were eighty bullet holes in the water line of her hull. These were stopped by screws made for the purpose.” December 10: “Truly I am worn to a shadow with the food question; it is one continual demand.”... “The Arabs are shaping the stones they fire like the shells of their guns; they will soon spoil the rifling of their guns if they continue this.” December 11: “I have given the whole garrison an extra months pay – I will not hesitate to give them £100,000, if I think it will keep the town.” December 12: “We have in hand 1,796,000 rounds rifle ammunition; 540 rounds Krupp; 6000 rounds mountain gun ammunition; £140 in specie; £18,000 in paper money in the Treasury!! And another £60,000 in town in paper; 110,000 okes of biscuits and 700 ardebs of dhoora.” December 13: “We are going to send down the *Bordeen* the day after tomorrow, and with her I shall send this journal. If some effort is not made before ten days time, the town will fall. If the Expeditionary Force has reached the river and met my steamers, one hundred men are all that we require, just to show themselves.”... “The buglers on the roof, being short of stature, are put on boxes to enable them to fire over the parapet.”... and finally on December 14: “Arabs fired shells at the Palace this morning; only 546 ardebs of dhoora remain in store!; also 83,525 okes of biscuit”... “The steamers are down at Omdurman engaging the Arabs, consequently I am on tenterhooks!”... “Now mark this: if the Expeditionary Force does not soon come, the town will fall; and I have done by best for the honor of our country. Good by.”

A month later the Mahdi took Khartoum, massacring Gordon and the entire garrison. General Wolsely's relief force arrived at Khartoum on January 28, 1885, two days after the massacre was over.

The Mahdi did not live long enough to enjoy his victory. He died six months later of typhus. Thirteen years later, in 1898, another expeditionary force under command of General Horatio Kitchener won a decisive victory, killing eleven thousand of the Mahdi's surviving religious fanatics, thus reestablishing British control over the region. The final indignity occurred when the Mahdi's bones were located, dug up and thrown into the Nile.

Of the siege notes, most were destroyed during and immediately after the fall of Khartoum. Of the total 91,700 notes issued, only 3,000 or 4,000 escaped destruction when Khartoum was overrun.

The Sieges of Koffyfontein and O'okiep

When first coming to Africa, the Dutch settled at the Cape of Good Hope, setting up a colony there in 1652. Cape Town originally was a supply station serving East India Company ships en-route to the Spice Islands. It wasn't long before settlers from Holland arrived to raise cattle for this lucrative trade. These cattlemen and farmers soon spread beyond their Cape Colony into the hinterland, subduing the native Zulus and Hottentots as they went.

By the Treaty of Paris, drawn up at the conclusion of the Napoleonic War (May 30, 1814), Britain was awarded possession of the Cape settlements. From this moment

on constant struggles took place between the British and the original Dutch inhabitants (Boers). The Boers, irritated by British interference in their affairs, made the Great Trek north in search of new lands upon which to settle. In 1856 they set up the republics of Orange Free State and the Transvaal and recognized each other's independence. Diamonds were discovered in 1867 at a site on the Orange River. In 1871 the town of Kimberly was founded, soon becoming the center of a flourishing diamond industry. This, and the discovery of gold in the Transvaal in 1886, completely changed the economic composition of South Africa from agricultural to industrial. The British then rapidly annexed all available territory displacing the native populations. The Boers, finding themselves landlocked, wanted access to the sea. This brought on further conflict, which led to the Boer War of 1899-1902.

Koffyfontein, a small mining town near Kimberly, was occupied by the British during the Boer War. The forces there were besieged by the Dutch during the war. During the siege, Major Robertson authorized the release of a five pounds siege note. This single Koffyfontein note carries the heading "Koffyfontein Besieged", is dated January 1, 1901, and has as its principal motif a likeness of the British union jack. The note is signed by Major Robertson.



Koffyfontein was an important South African diamond mining town. During the Boer War the British forces were besieged there, causing Major Robertson, the garrison commander, to issue this five pounds note dated January 1, 1901.

O'okiep was an insignificant copper mining town in the Cape Colony. It eventually became the headquarters of the Cape Copper Mining Company. The Dutch laid siege to the town in 1902 toward the end of the Boer War. Typewritten siege notes were issued entitled "O'okiep Siege Note" which were dated May 1902, the month the war ended. O'okiep siege notes were in denominations of 10 shillings, 1 and 2 pounds.

The Siege of Mafeking

From the beginning of settlement, conflict existed between the Dutch farmers called "Boers", their neighbors the British, and the native Zulu and Bantu tribes of the interior. The British initially prevailed; however the Boers rose in revolt in 1881, successfully defeating them. Britain then formally recognized the independence of the Orange Free State and Transvaal as Boer states. After gold and diamonds were discovered, both sides began coveting one another's territory becoming convinced that the other was plotting to annex its own territory.

When president Kruger threatened to incorporate Boers living in Natal and the Cape Colony into his own land, another war became inevitable. Combining to form the Zuid Afrikaansche Republiek, known in English as the South African Republic, to avoid being swamped by the numerically superior British settlers, the Boers found themselves standing alone against the might of the world's sole superpower.

The Boers began to arm themselves with modern weapons, particularly the new German Mauser rifle. The British force at this time numbered 46,000, while the Boer army had 87,000 men. After Kruger's ultimatum concerning the confederation of the Boer republics was rejected, war was declared on October 11, 1899. The Boers were hunters, preferring to use rifles and waiting tactics, the same as in hunting. At war's opening they quickly went on the offensive laying siege to the towns of Ladysmith, Mafeking and Kimberly. Trenches played an important part in the sieges of these three towns. The Boers relied upon the physiological impact of artillery bombardment and starvation to overcome the British garrisons. Although gaining victory upon victory in their initial campaigns, the Boers relied too heavily upon siege warfare, tying down half their resources, thus losing the offensive momentum.

Anticipating the outbreak of war, the British sent Colonel Baden-Powell, a cavalry officer, to Mafeking to evacuate its 1500 white inhabitants. Before this could be accomplished the Boers surrounded the town trapping its inhabitants. The siege was to last for 217 days. The stage was now set for one of the greatest sagas in British military history.

Of the three besieged towns Mafeking, located in the northern Cape Colony on the Transvaal border, was the least significant, a dust bowl of little strategic value. The town consisted of little more than a market square containing the municipal offices and the Dixon Hotel with the railway station and workshops adjacent.

Surrounded, outgunned, and with an inferior force and little artillery, Mafeking's survival would depend upon the initiative, cunning and resourcefulness of its commander, and his skill as a military strategist. This siege was unlike other sieges, as Mafeking was surrounded by open ground, there being no fortress involved. Being short of artillery, Baden-Powell instructed his men after firing a cannon to immediately drag it through the trenches to the next perimeter location and to fire it again. The accumulated effect was to lead the Boers to believe that Mafeking was well supplied with artillery and that the British were merely conserving ammunition. On another occasion he observed his men ducking, twisting and crawling beneath the perimeter barbed wire when returning to camp after a day in the trenches. After running out of barbed wire, Baden-Powell ordered his men to continue erecting posts

and to return to camp each night by crawling in the same manner. Seeing the posts from their distant observation point, but not being able to see the wire, the Boers were convinced that an assault upon Mafeking would prove too costly.

After their initial losses, the British informed Baden-Powell that he must prepare to hold out until the middle of May. This news came as a heavy blow as shortages were already becoming apparent. After receiving the disquieting news, the siege then settled down to a day-to-day routine. Sniping continued and the town was shelled daily. In all, the Boers lobbed over 20,000 shells at the defenders. Sundays were off limits, with both sides agreeing to a day of rest. To keep up morale Cricket matches and band concerts were organized.

Baden-Powell also had a flare for the dramatic. Fearing that there may be spies in the town, he made a sign and posted it one morning in the market square which read:

“There are in town today nine known spies. They are hereby warned to leave before 12 noon tomorrow, or they will be apprehended.”

Setting up headquarters in the Dixon Hotel, he used homing pigeons to fly messages out of the besieged town. He also pressed the boys of the town into a corps of runners whose job it was to carry messages by bicycle from one defense location to another.

By now, however, the constant shelling, monotony and continuing call to arms were beginning to take their toll. Shortages were becoming more acute by the day. Rationing of food started in November. A month later garrison members were beginning to die of starvation. To alleviate the food shortage Baden-Powell ordered horses to be slaughtered and soup kitchens set up. The soup produced consisted of half a horse at 250 pounds; mealie meal 15 pounds and oat husks 50 pounds. This concoction made 132 gallons of mush like soup. Horsemeat was also used to make sausage, using the horse's gut for skins. As rations were further reduced the townsfolk took to frying locusts. When asked what he thought of them, one trooper replied: “They're not so bad, they have all the full aroma, flavor and consistency of chewed string.”

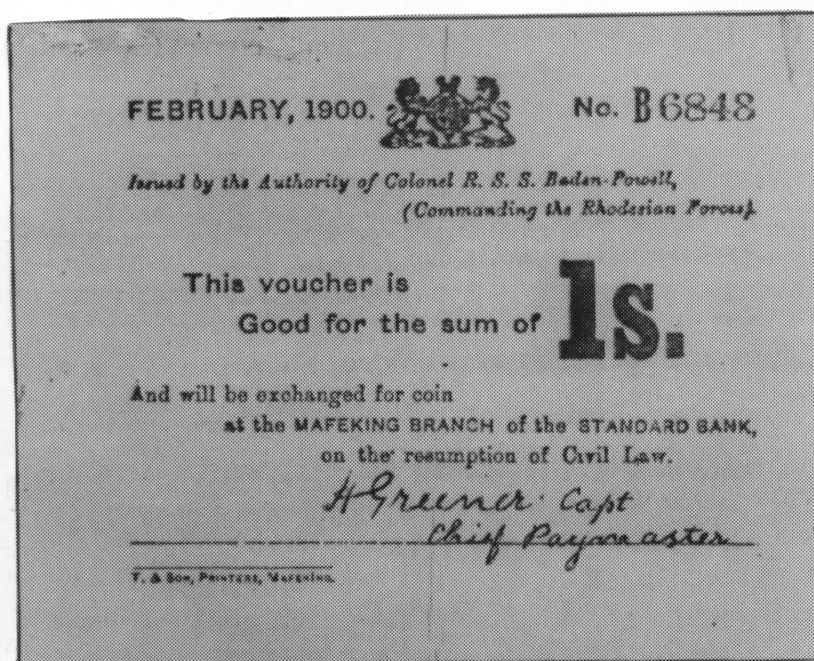
To alleviate his shortage of cannon Baden-Powell improvised by refurbishing an old artillery piece found on Rowland's Farm. It was a 1792 vintage ship's cannon, which was then being used by Mr. Rowland as a lawn ornament. The gun was taken to the railway workshop and renovated there. Special cannon balls were made for it. The reconstructed gun was nicknamed “The Wolf” and served well in the defense of Mafeking.

In another ploy Baden-Powell had his men fill small cardboard boxes with sand to simulate land mines, which were then buried outside of town. To add realism he took some of the precious dynamite available to “test” the minefield's efficiency. The Boers kept their distance.

By the end of 1899 the garrison's finances were in disarray. The shortage of small change was so acute, it was impossible to sell less than sixpenny worth of flour to a customer as smaller coins no longer circulated. Banknotes, coins and postage stamps

had by now all disappeared. Something had to be done. Baden-Powell was equal to the occasion. He authorized the immediate issue of small denomination siege notes to be backed by South Africa's Standard Bank. In January the garrison "mint" commenced printing notes and postage stamps to meet the needs of the townspeople, the stamps satisfying the need for "small change".

The Mafeking siege notes were issued from January through May 1900. The first issue consisted of one, two and three shilling notes. These were printed by the local printer Townsend and Son on blue ruled notebook paper or on railroad stationery. The 1 and 2 shilling notes are dated January or February, 1900, while the 3 shilling banknote was only issued in January. One and two shilling notes dated March, 1900 were printed but never issued. The notes, as one would expect, are relatively crude affairs. The basic design shows the British arms at top flanked by date and serial number. Beneath this is a line which reads "This voucher is good for the sum of 1s, etc.". The text which follows promises that the "note will be exchanged for coin at the Mafeking branch of the Standard Bank upon the resumption of civil law." Values were printed in green, brown and red respectively for the three notes. All notes, with the exception of the unissued notes dated March, 1900, are signed by the Chief Paymaster, Capt. H. Greener. These notes were meant to contain a dry embossed one penny revenue stamp, but few notes ever received them.



One shilling siege note of Mafeking. Placed under siege in 1899 at the outbreak of the Boer War, the town soon ran out of money. The British garrison solved the problem by issuing necessity money, which served as the sole medium of exchange for 217 days, until Mafeking was relieved on May 18, 1900.



Siege of Mafeking, ten shilling note dated March, 1900 showing artillery used in defense of the town. Printed locally, the earlier notes contain an error. The error appears in the bottom line of text. Here the word "Commanding" is misspelled, as shown in this example. A second printing corrected this deficiency, thus creating two varieties of the note.

The ten shilling note has proven the most popular with collectors. A large note, measuring 120 x 160mm, the ten shilling carries the heading "Mafeking Siege Note" and contains a wood-cut of two soldiers manning cannon in the defense of the town. They were issued only in March, 1900. Better paper was used for this issue, the note being printed in olive green. An interesting error appears on the earlier ten shilling notes. On these the word "Commanding" in the bottom line is misspelled, with the letter "d" omitted. The error was soon detected and corrected resulting in the existence of two varieties of the note.

The final siege issue, a £1 note, was personally designed by Baden-Powell. It also is dated March, 1900 and was photographically produced by the ferroprussiate process. They were printed on blue architects paper. The £1 note is a neat piece of propaganda designed to lift the spirits of the sagging garrison. It prominently shows Colonel Baden-Powell standing by a British flag and the cannon nicknamed "Wolf", flanked by riflemen and a kneeling woman. All are hand-signed and numbered. Less than seven hundred of these notes entered circulation, making them the rarest of the Mafeking siege notes.

In addition to the notes described above, several essays of various denominations were prepared containing designs, which were never adopted. Also exceedingly scarce are the few notes, which were printed on the backs of Bechuanaland Government stationery, to make up for the shortage of paper. There were other related British issues of necessity money during the Boer War not directly relating to the siege of Mafeking. The most interesting of these consisted of notes issued by the

Upington Border Scouts due to the unavailability of other money. Authorized by the Paymaster, notes of 2, 5, 10 shillings and 1 and 2 pounds denomination were handwritten on scraps of green military cloth. All carry the hand-stamp of the Upington Border Scouts, were dated March 1, 1902 and then hand-signed by Major Birkbeck, Officer in Charge. After the war the notes were fully redeemed.

At the end, rations for the garrison were reduced to a ½ cup of meal per man per day. Sausage production stopped. In an effort to increase the meager food supply, former cattle rustlers were rounded up and sent outside in search of steer. Nor did Baden-Powell's never ending ingenuity and improvisation stop. When the Boers showed interest in making night attacks, he borrowed some acetylene from a traveling salesman who had been trapped in the town when first invested, and made a portable searchlight of it. The light was placed at the top of a pole, which could be turned by hand-crank. Shown several times a night from different locations, it produced 360 candlepower and was a great success.

The British public watched Mafeking with keen interest during the siege. Baden-Powell's incredible game of bluff soon won him a hero's status. With the Boers in full retreat in April 1900, the British made a major effort to relieve Mafeking. With the help of Canadian and Australian forces the British succeeded in lifting the siege of Mafeking at 4:00 A.M. on the morning of May 17, 1900 after the town had suffered 389 casualties. The entry of the relief column into Mafeking set off an orgy of celebration around the British Empire that was to last for weeks.

Following the loss of their capital, Pretoria, the Boers switched their strategy and began to use guerilla war tactics, which was to prolong the war for another two years. During this timeframe General Kitchiner, of Sudan fame, succeeded in subduing the remaining Boers.

After returning to an adoring England after the war, Baden-Powell gave up his military career to turn his attention to the education of young boys. He wanted to provide the boys with a good solid education while at the same time encouraging them. Drawing upon his experience with his young runners at Mafeking, he realized that young people, properly motivated, were quite ready to take on responsibility and to be of service. From this beginning the Boy Scout movement was born, eventually spreading to all corners of the globe.

The Siege of Scutari

Our final siege took place on the frontier of the old Ottoman Empire in what is today northern Albania. Toward the end of the nineteenth century the power of the Ottoman Turks was in decline throughout the empire. Encouraged by administrative and economic chaos, many of the titled Pashas, who once had served the sultan, seized upon the opportunity to become independent of Constantinople. During this period the Albanians had to struggle not only against the repression of the Turks, but also from the encroachments of their neighbors. In 1912 a national uprising took place in the mountainous north. The sudden collapse of the Turkish army left the Albanians exposed to the onslaught of their Montenegrin, Serbian and Greek neighbors. The Montenegrino army placed Scutari and the fortress of Tarabosh, garrisoned by Turkish troops, under siege without delay. This, together with the Serbs' sudden advance into Albania, and the Greek intention to occupy southern Albania alarmed Austria-Hungary and Italy, the two dominant powers in the region.

They quickly brokered an agreement with all parties, which would essentially create an independent Albania. By creating an independent Albanian state, Austria-Hungary and Italy effectively blocked Serbian expansion to the Adriatic Sea. It was at this time that Kosovo, with its 800,000 Albanians, was awarded to Serbia. As an interim measure the Turkish general Essad Pasha formed a provisional government in the north.

One of the few tangible assets in the region was the railway the Austrians were then in the process of building. Essad Pasha immediately took control of the Albanian Railway and its branches. The newly printed railway tickets were seized for use by his treasury as a form of currency, as Essad Pasha had few other immediate sources of income. Many of these "tokens" found their way to Scutari.

The fortress at Tarabosh was placed under siege by the Montenegrins in October 1912 and taken by them six months later, on April 22, 1913. The Turkish general in command, Essad Pasha worked out an agreement which allowed his soldiers to leave with their arms. Later King Nicholas of Montenegro was forced by the international commission overseeing Albanian independence to relinquish control over Scutari. Confusion and disorder were to reign in the area until the outbreak of World War I, whereupon Albania was again carved up by the belligerents.

Dr. Arnold Keller, in his book *Das Papiergeld des Ersten Weltkriegs, teil I, Europa* makes mention of the Scutari siege notes, as the first paper money of Albania. The four notes are uniface on cardboard of different colors. Since Turkish currency was in use at the time, they are denominated in para and grosh, the monetary equivalent being one grosh equaled forty para. The 5 para is printed in brown, the 10 para in black, ½ grosh blue, and the 1 grosh token purple.



Railway tickets were used as necessity money during the siege of the Turkish fortress at Scutari by the Montenegrin army. When viewed horizontally, this crudely printed 10 para token depicts a train of cars passing beneath mountains.

The basic design is that of a steam passenger train with mountains in the background. These were the mountains where the fortress of Tarabosh was situated. Although the notes are vertical, the design is horizontal and can only be viewed when turning the note on its side. Essad Pasha's name appears in a scroll at the top (Esat Pasha), with Shqiperia (Albania) below. Along the right side of the note are the Albanian words "PER UDHE" (ticket) and at the left "SHEMENDEFER" (railway), after the French *chemin de fer*. Completing the design are the denominations at the bottom of the note, spelled out as "1/2 GROSH 1/2", "10 PARA 10" and so on.

I hope you will agree with me that much history can be learned from these surviving scraps of paper. The next time you hold one of them in your hand, ask yourself . . . "hummm, I wonder if the loyalist who owned this note survived the slaughter at Lyon?" or "What did a Prussian defender purchase with his note while shells were raining down on Colberg? Did he survive the siege, or was he among the unfortunate 2000 who were killed or wounded? or "Was this note signed in Gordon's own hand or hectographically?" or, perhaps "What would have happened if Baden-Powell hadn't taken the initiative and demonstrated such cunning and resourcefulness in directing the defense of Mafeking?" Only our own imagination can provide the answers.

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THE MYSTERIOUS GHAZI RASHID AND HIS CASH

David Spencer Smith, LM #92 and Jennifer Fu

Mention of cast copper/bronze “cash” coins calls to mind issues of China – coins initially with a round hole in the period of the Warring States (476-221 BC), soon changed to a uniform square hole that persisted for over two millennia. These coins typically have a Chinese inscription denoting the dynastic period and the ruler, and sometimes the date or denomination. Auction catalogs including Ancient China frequently list “money trees”, with series of cash coins still attached to the “branches” of the tree from which the individual coins were snapped off. References readily available in the West include Schj  th (1965), but it should be noted that this paragraph is something of a red herring, merely setting the stage for the topic of the article.

Perhaps fifty years ago, it was assumed that this coining technique was almost exclusively used by the Chinese. More recently, it is becoming clear that while cast cash coins were used in China on a scale unapproached elsewhere, nevertheless the technique was adopted outside the borders of China, however these were drawn over the ages. Most dramatically, we now know that rulers of Central Asian principalities in Sogd (Sogdiana), principally in present Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, issued “cash”-type coins. Until quite recently, practically nothing of these coins was known in the West: Soviet archaeologists were working ancient sites in their “Autonomous Southern Republics”, and the wealth of information was published in Soviet Russian books and periodicals. These publications have only recently started to filter out to the West, and the information they contain is remarkable, including an enormous corpus of copper coin types. Amongst these, between the 7th and the 8th centuries AD numerous rulers in Sogd issued a very wide range of cast coins of the Chinese pattern, but with Sogdian script on one or both sides. An example is shown in Fig. 1 in which only the obverse bears a legend, and the reverse a crescent. This coin is of an unknown ruler in Semireche, present Kyrgyzstan, North of Kashgar, probably in the 8th century (Smirnova, 1981; No. 1589).

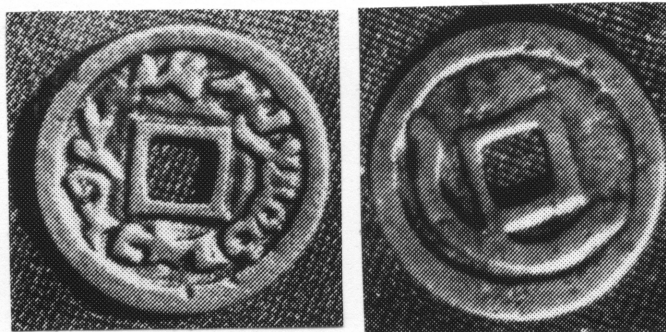


Fig. 1. Obverse and reverse of a cast Sogdian coin of Semireche.

Much more recently, a non-Chinese cash-type coin was produced in Sinkiang bearing a Turki legend on obverse and reverse (Fig. 2), listed in Krause-Mishler *Standard Catalog of World Coins* (1996), correctly, as an issue of Ghazi Rashid, noted in the listing as “A rebel in Sinkiang . . . about whom little is known. He was in power from 1862 until his death in 1867.” Recently, a Chinese numismatist (Li, 1998) has recorded a single example of a silver casting of this coin, found in Khotan, from a

mould used for copper issues. However, the rather mysterious “Rashid” was something of a dumping ground for coins of doubtful origin, and this issue of the *Catalog* also attributes to the same Rashid “tear-drop”-shaped copper pulis (KM C36-7.1, 2); coins which Chinese accounts have now attached to the Zungar Dynasty that controlled much of Sinkiang during the late 17th and early 18th centuries.

Returning to this “cash” coin, we must now look at the history of Sinkiang in the 1860s and, in particular, at the role Rashid/Rashiddin played during this period, when Eastern Turkistan (Sinkiang) was effectively outside the jurisdiction of the Chinese government in Peking. Since the 8th century AD, Kashgar and other regions of Eastern Turkistan had, for shorter or longer periods, been controlled by western khanates, notably Bokhara and Samarkand and, in the time of Chingiz Khan and his second son Chagatai, by the Mongols. In 1758 the region again fell under the central control of China.

Thereafter, an important part in the history of Chinese Turkistan was played by the *Khojas*, Muslim holy men or religious leaders, claiming descent from Mohammed or from the first four Caliphs. Several *Khoja* families were based in Central Asia west of Chinese Turkistan – in Bokhara, Fergana, Samarkand and Khokand (all in present Uzbekistan). For part of the 17th century, Kashgar was ruled by *Khojas* and they remained a threat whenever Eastern Turkistan was controlled by Peking. In the first half of the 19th century, four *Khoja* incursions took place. In 1822 Jehangir, son of a former ruler of Kashgar, invaded and in 1826 took control of Kashgar; he reigned for only nine months before being captured, “. . . taken to Peking and exhibited in a cage, previous to being cut in pieces and thrown to the dogs.” (Lansdell, 1893). A Khokandi *Khoja*, Yusuf, invaded in 1830 and controlled Kashgar for three months. In 1846, seven Khokandi *Khoja* again held Kashgar for three months. In 1857, *Khoja* Wali Khan was welcomed in Kashgar by his Khokandi compatriots, but enjoyed no more success than his predecessors other than escaping dismemberment.

This introduction sets the stage for introducing Rashid and his “cash-type” coins. In 1862, a revolt broke out in the southern Chinese provinces of Shensi and Kansu, east of Sinkiang. This revolt was led by the *Tungan*, ethnic Chinese Muslims, and was unconnected with any Khokandi *Khoja* activity. The overwhelmingly large Muslim majorities in Sinkiang towns followed suit; the first town to eliminate the Han garrison was Kuche (=Kucha, Kuchar). According to Bushell (1899-1900), the leader of the revolt in Kuche, Rashid *Khoja*, was guardian of a famous shrine there. Kuche, an ancient oasis town, lies almost 700 miles east of Kashgar. Two years after the start of the revolt Rashid took the title of Khan of Turkistan and appointed Muslim governors for the main towns. Li (1998) records that this took place on 6 June, 1864, and adds that the official signature he adopted was “*The descendant chosen by the Saint; father of victory.*” By the end of that year he was acknowledged throughout much of Chinese Turkistan, with the notable exception of Khotan, ruled by Habibullah (Lansdell, 1893).

Unfortunately for Rashid, he was not a member of the family favored by the senior Muslim officer in Kashgar, who appealed to the Khan of Khokand to send *Khoja* Buzurg, a descendant of a 17th century ruler of Kashgar. Buzurg, with 50 men including his lieutenant Yakub Beg, reached Kashgar in 1865; he was welcomed but, as Lansdell obliquely stated Buzurg “. . . speedily lapsed into debauchery” and Yakub Beg assumed power. Much has been written of Yakub Beg (Boulger, 1878; Lansdell,

1893; Chen, 1977) and his copper, silver and gold coins are listed in the Krause-Mishler *Standard Catalog of World Coins*.

Yakub Beg speedily gained control over much of the region, including the oasis of Khotan following the 1865 murder of its ruler, Habibullah (Smith, 2002). By 1867, Rashid was in control only of Aqsu, Kuche and Karashar. According to Bushell (1899-1900) Yakub came to Kuche with an army during that summer, claiming that his sole aim was to worship at the shrine of Khan Hazrat Maulan, Rashid's sainted ancestor. With astonishingly misplaced trust, Rashid welcomed Yakub and sent out envoys with a ceremonial banquet. He was invited to visit Yakub's camp the following day; the rivals embraced and Rashid was murdered. Li (1998) records the date of his death, from Chinese sources, as 17 June, 1867.



Fig. 2a, 2b. Obverse and reverse of cast copper of Rashid from Kuche mint.

Rashid left only three coins – the copper holed cash of Kuche (KM C.36.1, 2) and a similar but much rarer issue of Aqsu (KM C-36.3), the other town he controlled, and the newly discovered silver casting. The best description of the Kuche coin was given by Bushell (1899-1900), who provided a very detailed account of coin issues of Sinkiang in the later decades of the 19th century. The obverse inscription includes the ruler's titles: "*Said Ghazi Rashaddin Khan*"; the Arabic numeral "2" over the first word taken to denote the second year of his reign – 1863. "*Said*" (= *sayyid*) denotes the claimed descent from the Prophet and "*Ghazi*" is an Islamic honorific. The reverse legend reads: "*Zarb dar es-sultanah Kuche*": struck in the capital city of Kuche. Above the third word, Bushell noted *la illah*, the start of the usual Islamic dedication common to many coins. The obverse (Fig. 2a) is oriented with *Said* and the numeral "2" at 12:00 o'clock and the legend is read counter-clockwise. The reverse (Fig. 2b) has *Zarb* at top and *Kuche* at 3:00 o'clock.



Fig. 3. Reverse of cast copper of Rashid from Aqsu mint.

Krause-Mishler does not illustrate the Aqsu issue: the reverse of an example is shown in Fig. 3: *Aqsu* is at 3:00 o'clock, and again the legend is read counter-clockwise. Kuche was Rashid's main base; Aqsu, another ancient oasis near the northern edge of the Takla Makan desert lies 450 miles west of Kuche. The only three examples of the Aqsu issue seen by the author lack the "2".

Yakub Beg's rule had a very considerable impact on Sinkiang. Had he been a competent, moderate and just ruler his State outside control of China might have succeeded. Unfortunately, he had none of these attributes and his influence on the region was almost uniformly negative. The Han Chinese army was generally welcomed when it reentered Sinkiang. The Han general entered Kashgar in December 1877, but Yakub Beg was already dead, having killed his secretary and then engaged in a brawl with his treasurer in May (Lansdell, 1893). Contemporary accounts do not mention whether Rashid's limited rule was good or bad - perhaps absence of comments must be taken as favorable - it could scarcely have been as bad as that of his murderer, Yakub Beg. Historically, Rashid was one of a series of *Khojas* to rule in Chinese Turkistan, but at least he was a native of the land, not an adventurer from the west. He adapted the Chinese style of coinage for his few issues, and these reserve for him a place in the numismatic history of Sinkiang.

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INDEED A NOBLE COMPANY

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The bronze medal shown 1½ times actual size as Fig. 1 depicts no less than five saints, hence the title of this essay. They are, on the obverse, St. Ignatius of Loyola and St. Francis Xavier, and on the reverse, St. Teresa of Avila (S.T), St. Isidore the Farmer (S.I.) and - probably - St. Philip Neri (S.F. = Santo Felipe in Spanish and Santo Filippo in Italian). As can be seen from the obverse exergue, this medal was made in Rome (1), and it would appear that it was made in 1622 or shortly after, for all five saints were canonized in that year (2), the medal presumably having been struck to commemorate the event.



Fig. 1

St. Ignatius of Loyola and St. Francis Xavier I have dealt with elsewhere (3). Of the saints on the reverse, St. Teresa of Avila (1515-1582) is undoubtedly the most famous.



Fig. 2

At the age of 18 Teresa entered a Carmelite convent at Avila, where she found that the standards of religious life had slipped alarmingly: the nuns wore jewellery, dined well, and even threw parties for their friends from outside the convent! Teresa made it her mission to restore the strict observances of the Carmelites, not only in her own convent at Avila, but throughout Spain (for the problem was a widespread one). Needless to say there were those who were not very happy with a return to austerity,

yet such was her energy that she succeeded in her mission, and found time to write two classics of Spanish religious literature - *The Way of Perfection* and *The Interior Castle* - as well as her autobiography. She was declared a Doctor of the Church in 1970, and her learning has long been symbolised in painting and sculpture by showing her holding a book and a quill pen. The obverse of the aluminium medal shown 1½ times actual size in Fig. 2 is an example of this, though not the clearest I have ever seen as regards the quill! Its legend SANTA TERESA DE JESUS SOLO DIOS BASTA signifies, "St. Teresa of Jesus (her religious name (4)), only God is enough." The reverse of the medal shows the basilica of Alba de Tormes, which is where the saint died in 1582.

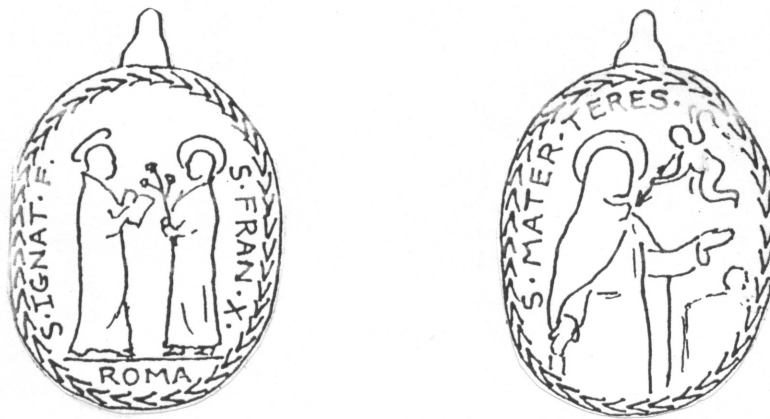


Fig. 3

One of the most famous events in St. Teresa's life is represented on the reverse of the bronze medal shown actual size in Fig. 3. (Its obverse, like Fig. 1, shows St. Ignatius of Loyola and St. Francis Xavier, and this may even be another medal commemorative of the canonizations of 1622 - it is certainly old enough to be such. Note again the ROMA in the obverse exergue.) The reverse - its legend S. MATER. TERES. = Holy Mother Teresa - depicts the so called "Ecstasy of St. Teresa", best described by the saint herself:

"It pleased the Lord that I should sometimes see the following vision. I would see beside me, on my left hand, an angel in bodily form...He was not tall, but short and very beautiful, his face so aflame that he appeared to be one of the highest types of angel who seem to be all afire...In his hands I saw a long golden spear and at the end of the iron tip I seemed to see a point of fire. With this he seemed to pierce my heart several times so that it penetrated to my entrails. When he drew it out, I thought he was drawing them out with it and he left me completely afire with a great love for God. The pain was so sharp that it made me utter several moans; and so excessive was the sweetness caused me by this intense pain that one can never wish to lose it, nor will one's soul be content with anything less than God. It is not bodily pain, but spiritual, though the body has a share in it - indeed a great share." (5)



Fig. 4

But for all her mystical learning and pious devotion, St. Teresa had a sense of humour. "God deliver us from sullen saints," she is reputed to have said on more than one occasion. But it is her ticking off the Almighty that sticks in my mind. The occasion was apparently one dreadful rainy night when she was ignominiously tumbled out of her carriage as its wheel was broken by a rut in the road. "No wonder you have so few friends," she complained to God, "when you treat the ones you have so badly!" (8)



Fig. 5

This famous vision is probably best known via the sculpture of Bernini's in the church of Santa Maria della Vittoria in Rome (Fig. 4). This wonderful sculpture has had its pious critics, however, who have complained that its ecstasy looks disturbingly like an altogether more earthly experience. As one wag put it, "If this is Divine Love, I know all about it." (6) Others dispute this irreverent interpretation, of course, for where there's a pious will, there's usually a pious way (7).

Incidentally, it is said that St. Teresa's heart, which is preserved at the basilica of Alba de Tormes (as in Fig. 2), visibly bears the wound of the spear in it, though skeptics are, well, skeptical of this.

Returning to Fig. 1, now, we come to St. Isidore the Farmer (c.1070-1170) or San Isidro Labrador as he is known in Spanish. He is not exactly a household name in the annals of sainthood, at least not outside Spain. A native of Madrid he spent his life in pious devotion as a simple farm labourer on the estate of a rich land-owner outside the city. His life is not the raciest in the calendar of saints, then, and his main claim to fame is that he became the patron saint of Madrid, as well as one of the patron saints of farmers. In art he is generally depicted holding agricultural implements: in the medal of Fig. 1, as in the print shown here as Fig. 5, he is holding a hoe. We shall see him similarly represented in the medals shown in Figs. 6 & 7 below.

St. Isidore's remains today lie in the church of San Isidro in Madrid, a church which for some years served as the cathedral of the city. Oddly, though, it is not so much here that pilgrims gather to celebrate the saint's feast day (May 15th) - the so-called *romeria* of Madrid - as at the hermitage of San Isidro, elsewhere in the city.

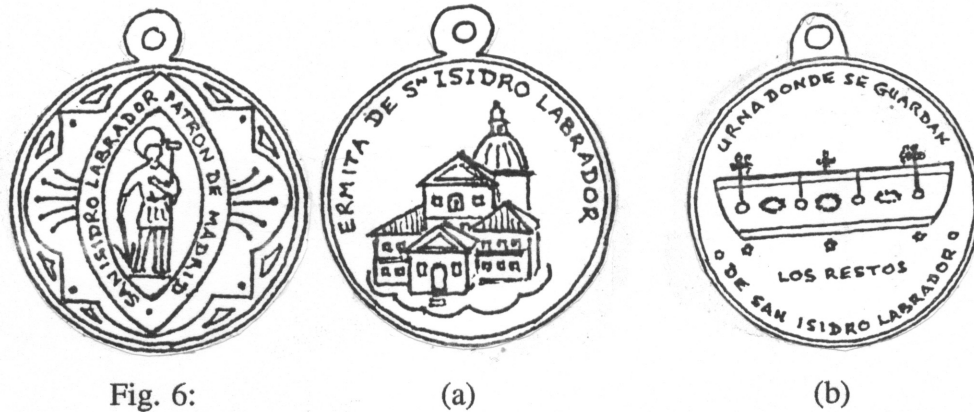


Fig. 6:

(a)

(b)



Fig. 7

The bronze medal shown $1\frac{1}{2}$ times actual size in Fig. 6(a) shows, on the obverse, the saint holding a mattock and hoe, specifically naming him as the patron of Madrid, and on the reverse the hermitage (ERMITA). Goya did a fine painting of the *romeria* in full swing with the hermitage in the background. It can be seen in the Prado Museum. Fig. 6(b) shows an alternative reverse for this medal. It pictures the coffin containing the saint's remains in the church of San Isidro. A third bronze medal shown, again

$1\frac{1}{2}$ times actual size, in Fig. 7, is a self-explanatory souvenir (RECUERDO) of the *romeria*. All these medals are probably of 19th century date.

The word *romeria* is an interesting one. Originally it referred specifically to a pilgrimage to Rome (9), but later it came to be applied to any group of people (*romeros*) making a pilgrimage to a shrine in their own locality, and holding a fiesta in the vicinity afterwards. (The Spanish have this latter activity down to a fine art, or course, having a long history of fiestas for everything from saints to tomatoes.) The *romeria* of Madrid is a famous example, attended by pilgrims from far and wide. It is sometimes suggested that the English word "roam" has a similar derivation (10a), but this is debatable (10b).

We come now to the last saint on the reverse of Fig. 1, St. Philip Neri (1515-1595). At first I could find nothing interesting about him at all - he had lived and worked among the poor of Rome, basically - but then I found that he was uninteresting because so many of his pious biographers had cut out the good bits of his story. St. Philip Neri was, in fact, rather an eccentric character - he used to say mass with a chipmunk perched on his shoulder (11); he received important visitors with a cushion

balanced on his head (12); and, anticipating Salvador Dali by four centuries, regularly used to shave just one half of his face (13). St. Philip Neri was far from dull, in fact.

That the S.F. on the reverse of Fig. 1 is St. Philip Neri is not certain, but this option does seem to be confirmed by the facts that a) it brings the medal into line with the list of five saintly notables similarly grouped together by Butler-Thurston-Attwater (2), and b) the bearded likeness and pose on the medal are very like those in the painting of the saint by Guido Reni (Fig. 8), on which painting all other representations of the saint are said to be based (14). However, St. Philip Neri is rather an odd one out in that he is Italian whereas the other four are all Spanish.



Fig. 8



Fig. 9

The bronze medal shown actual size in Fig. 9 is another medal relating to St. Philip Neri, its portrait again being extracted from Fig. 8. The reverse shows the Virgin Mary with the Infant Jesus, the legend REGINA ANGELORUM (= Queen of the Angels) being one of her many titles (15). This medal is probably of nineteenth century date.

Notes.

- (1) For a detailed look at ROMA medals, see "To be a Pilgrim I: in *NI Bulletin*, March 2000, p.66-76, and "More on ROMA Medals" in *NI Bulletin*, July 2002, p.197-204.

- (2) The 1956 edition of *Butler's Lives of the Saints*, edited by H. Thurston & D. Attwater, specifically groups these five saints together, precisely as does the medal: "St. Francis Xavier was canonized in 1622, at the same time as Ignatius Loyola, Teresa of Avila, Philip Neri and Isidore the Husbandman - indeed a noble company." (vol.4, p.481) I took the title of this article from this last phrase, of course.
- (3) See "St. Francis Xavier" in *NI Bulletin*, July 1999, p.153-156.
- (4) Not to be confused with St. Teresa of Lisieux, whose religious name was St. Teresa of the Child Jesus. For her see "St. Teresa of Lisieux" in *NI Bulletin*, October 2000, p.277-282.
- (5) The translation here is taken from E. Allison Peers, *The Complete Works of Saint Teresa of Jesus* (1946), vol.1, p.192-3. The episode occurs in ch. 29 of St. Teresa's *Life*.
- (6) John Varriano, *Rome - A Literary Companion* (1991), p.175.
- (7) Dierdre Green, *Gold in the Crucible* (1989), p.46.
- (8) Phyllis McGinley, *Saint Watching* (1970), p.93.
- (9) María Moliner, *Diccionario de Uso del Español* (1990), entry "romeria".
- (10) a) See, for example, C. G. Herbermann et al., *The Catholic Encyclopedia* (1907-1914), vol.12, p.94, article "Pilgrimages", section "Rome".

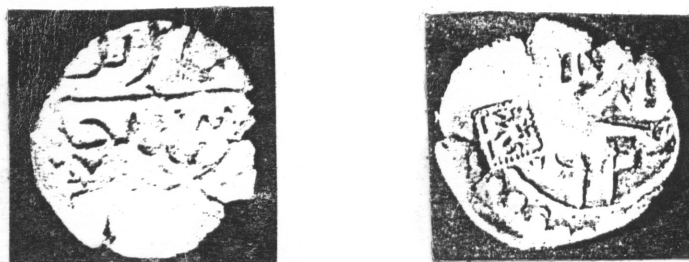
b) See, for example, *The Oxford English Dictionary* under "Roam": "Except in late puns, there is no evidence of connexion with the Romance words denoting pilgrims or pilgrimages to Rome..."
- (11) McGinley, op.cit. p.76.
- (12) Theodore Maynard, *Saints for Our Times* (1952), p.131.
- (13) McGinley, op.cit. p.113; Maynard, op.cit. p.131.
- (14) The Benedictine Monks of St. Augustine's Abbey, Ramsgate, *The Book of Saints* (1994), p.456 (entry "Philip Neri").
- (15) For another (French) medal depicting the Virgin Mary under this title, see "Religious Medals V: Religious Medals & Amulets" in *NI Bulletin*, December 1997, p.309 (fig. 5).

A BAYEZID AKCHE COUNTERMARKED BY A CITY STATE

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After the Ottoman Sultan Murad I died on the battlefield of Kossova after thirty years rule, his brother Bayezid then ruled from 1389. He was known as Yildirim (thunderbolt) by the speed with which he transported his army back to Anatolia. It is recorded that Agents came from the Italian cities to seek him, and offer their congratulations.

For coinage, he struck the small silver akche with the date 792 (AH), in huge quantities, and they were widely used in Rumelia, Anatolia and the neighbouring Vassal countries. The first minting occurred after December 20th 1389 and remained constant throughout his reign (with three minor varieties) up to July 1402 (805 AH). This was the time when the Ottomans were badly beaten near Ankara and Bayezid was captured by Timur, causing the Interregnum period (Devr-i Fetret) from 1402 to 1413 during which time his sons fought for power without the title of Sultan, until the youngest, Mehmed stood alone and undisputed possession of the Ottoman Empire.

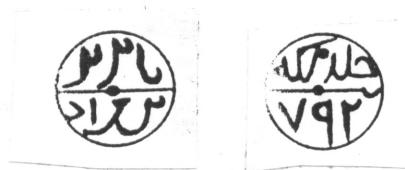


*Fig. 1. Bayezid I Akche 792. 14mm 0.75 gr. (enlarged).
5mm. Countermark with arms of City of Florence on reverse.
Struck over the "7" of the date.*

Illustrated here is one of Bayezid's akches (Fig. 1) held in a private collection in Turkey which has been countermarked in the City State of Florence (Firenze). The die used shows the arms of the City similar to the design of the Florin struck in that city (Fig. 2). It is quite uncommon to find an Ottoman coin re-valued in this way by a foreign State.



*Fig. 2. A Florin 14th Century
struck in Florence (enlarged).*



*Fig. 3 Typical Bayezid Akche, early
Variety 792 (AH) [0.75-1.38 grm].*

The sketch of a typical Bayezid akche (Fig. 3) obverse and reverse matches the early type, countermarked. On the obverse the name "Bayezid" appears above the divider line, and "bin Murad" below. On the reverse "Hullide Mulkehu" is above the divider line which in this type has a central dot and a hook at the right side (considered to be "sene" i.e. year), the date 792 is below.

A RELIGIOUS MEDAL OF LUXEMBOURG

Bob Forrest, Manchester, England, NI #2382

The modern simulated gold medal shown here 1½ times actual size has, on its obverse, an image of the miracle-working statue of the Virgin and Child known as "Notre Dame de Luxembourg". It represents the Virgin in her role as "Consoler of the Afflicted" (Consolatrix Afflictorum). Carved in lime-wood and some 38 inches tall, the early 17th century statue sits in what is today the Cathedral of the city of Luxembourg and is considered to be the special protector of the whole Grand Duchy (1). The obverse legend of the medal reads NOTRE DAME DE LUXEMBOURG P.P.N. (= Our Lady of Luxembourg, pray for us.) The word CONSOLATRIX appears at the base of the medal, an abbreviation of the inscription on the base of the actual statue (MARIA MATER JESU CONSOLATRIX AFFLICTORUM.)



The reverse of the medal shows St. Willibrord (2). Born in Northumbria in England in about 658, he trained as a missionary in Ireland and went to preach among the Friesians in about 690. He was instrumental in founding the monastery of Echternach in Luxembourg in 698. His relics remain at Echternach to this day, and the name of the monastery appears beneath his image on the medal. The reverse legend of the medal reads STE WILLIBRORDE ORA PRO NOBIS (= St. Willibrord, pray for us.)

Notes.

1. Joan Carroll Cruz, *Miraculous Images of Our Lady* (1993), p.276-8; H.M.Gillett, *Famous Shrines of Our Lady* (1952), vol.1, p.109-116.
2. Not a household name – see *The Book of Saints*, compiled by the Benedictine Monks of St. Augustine's Abbey, Ramsgate (1994), p.581. Note that his name is often spelt without the final e.

INFLATION AND MONETARY REFORM

Ron Herneshen, Plumas, Manitoba, Canada, NI #2243

As an introduction, I shall try to describe how inflation affected monetary reform in seven of the worst cases. This brief summary should be assumed to be incomplete.

Large numbers are often written in exponential notation where the "power of ten" gives the number of zeros following the number 1. For example:

$$10^6 = 1,000,000 \text{ (1 million)}$$

Perhaps the worst inflation occurred in Hungary from 1926-46.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1926 & 1 \text{ Pengo} = 12,500 \text{ Korona } (10^4) \\ 1946 & \text{Forint} = 4.2 \times 10^{23} \text{ Pengos} \end{array}$$

That means that a 1946 Forint was worth about 10^{27} pre-1926 Korona (That's 1 with 27 zeros behind it.)

Recent problems in Yugoslavia have made it almost as bad.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1990 & 1 \text{ new Dinar} = 10,000 \text{ old Dinar } (10^4) \\ 1992 & 1 \text{ new Dinar} = 10 \text{ old Dinar } (10^1) \\ 1993 & 1 \text{ new Dinar} = 1 \text{ million old Dinar } (10^6) \\ 1994 & 1 \text{ new Dinar} = 1 \text{ milliard old Dinar } (10^9) \end{array}$$

That means that a 1994 Dinar was worth 10^{20} pre-1990 Dinars.

Brazil has been in trouble for the last 25 years.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1967 & 1 \text{ Cruzeiro Novo} = 1000 \text{ Cruzeiros } (10^3) \\ 1986 & 1 \text{ Cruzado} = 1000 \text{ Cruzeiro Novo } (10^3) \\ 1989 & 1 \text{ Cruzado Novo} = 1000 \text{ Cruzados } (10^3) \\ 1990 & 1 \text{ Cruzeiro} = 1000 \text{ Cruzados Novo } (10^3) \\ 1993 & 1 \text{ Cruzeiro Reais} = 1000 \text{ Cruzeiro } (10^3) \end{array}$$

That means that a 1993 Cruzeiro Reais was worth 10^{15} pre-1967 Cruzeiros. (There has been another similar monetary reform in 1994.)

Russia went through some dramatic changes during its birth as a soviet republic.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1921 & 1 \text{ new Ruble} = 10,000 \text{ old Rubles } (10^4) \\ 1923 & \text{New Ruble} = 1 \text{ million old Rubles } (10^6) \\ 1924 & 1 \text{ Gold Ruble} = 5000 \text{ Rubles } (10^3) \end{array}$$

That means that a 1924 Gold Ruble was worth 10^{13} pre-1921 Rubles.

Argentina has also been in serious trouble for the last 25 years.

1970 1 new Peso = 100 old Pesos (10^2)
1983 1 Peso Argentino = 10,000 Pesos (10^4)
1985 Austral = 1000 Pesos Argentino (10^3)
1992 1 Peso = 10,000 Australes (10^4)

This means that a 1992 Peso was worth 10^{13} pre-1970 Pesos.

A well-publicized case occurred in Germany in 1923.

1923 Rentenmark = 10^{12} Marks (1 trillion in Can/Amer language)

Peru has had serious problems in the last 10 years.

1924 Inti = 1000 Soles de Oro (10^3)
1991 1 Nuevo Sol = 1 million Intis (10^6)

This means that a 1991 Nuevo Sol was worth 10^9 pre-1986 Soles, 1 billion in Can/Amer language.

If you are interested in doing further research into monetary reforms, the following countries are worth investigating:

Angola
Austria
Bolivia
Chile
China (Taiwan)
Colombia
Equatorial Guinea
Ethiopia
Ghana
Greece
Guinea
Israel
Korea
Mozambique
Nicaragua
Poland
Romania
St. Thomas & Prince
Uruguay
Zaire

THE EMERGENCY COINAGE OF GERMAN EAST AFRICA - THE TABORA SOVEREIGN

Jayant J. Ruparel, Nairobi, Kenya, NI #LM-100

(Reprinted from *NI Bulletin*, October 1974)

Tabora was well known during the 19th century as a stopping place for Arab caravans going inland from Zanzibar in search of slaves and ivory. During the establishment of German East Africa, Tabora became an administrative center on the Central Railway.

During the 1st World War the British naval ships effectively blockaded the coast of German East Africa. There was hoarding of the silver rupee and the other silver coins. To alleviate the shortage the Germans printed bank notes amounting to 20 million rupees, of various denominations.

The Germans also minted the 5 and 20 Heller coins in brass and copper. They really showed their initiative when they struck a 15 rupee gold coin at Tabora in 1916. By this time Tabora had become the administrative capital of German East Africa.

The English sovereign was legal tender in Zanzibar and British East Africa during the 1st World War. The Tabora 15 Rupee gold coin quickly came to be called sovereign although properly speaking it is not a sovereign at all, in that it does not display the head of the ruler.

The tradition of the German gold coinage was broken, in that the head of the ruler was not displayed.



The coin is described as follows:

Obverse: Within a plain circle and a circle of dots an elephant with extended trunk passing a range of mountains showing six peaks, the bottom separated by a line, date and mintmark for Tabora beneath.

Reverse: Within a plain circle and circle of dots the Imperial German crowned eagle, charged with the arms of Prussia, surrounded by the legend DEUTSCH OSTAFRIKA * 15 RUPIEN *.

Rim: Plain.

The history of the coin is fascinating. In 1915 the German government asked for men from the ship of a firm called M/S H. M. Malis de Silva in Dar-es-Salaam to go to Tabora to operate a mint. Their principal office was in Zanzibar.

A Sinhalese named Vithaire had worked with M/S H. M. Malis de Silva in Zanzibar and had come to Dar, in 1910, when the German government held a fair. Vithaire, as foreman, and three others went to Tabora. Their names were Mr. Simion, Mr. Charleshamy and Mr. L. B. Charleshamy.

The enterprising Germans had already made a minting machine from the wrecks of Kronberg and Tabora (1).

The gold used for making the coin was from Sekenke mines which is not far from Tabora. This gold contained a proportion of silver. As minted, the pieces were of 18Kt. gold, i.e. fineness .750/1.000. (Remick and others give the gold content as .600) (2).

Vithaire was responsible for stamping while his three colleagues were employed in smoothing the pieces of roughness.(3) The machinery was crude and most probably the first die broke necessitating a second die.

Working dies are themselves normally "struck" from a master die, but this was not so regarding all the emergency coins of Tabora. The dies were directly engraved and used.

Why did the Germans take so much trouble to mint the gold coins? There is no doubt that there was a shortage of silver coins and banknotes and the Germans had already issued the rupee notes, of different values. To boost the confidence in their issue, the Germans used the local Swahili language on the notes.

Up to 1914, the Germans had used the gold coins of the fatherland, when needed. Among the Arab and Indian traders, who were the main people in commerce, any gold coin was good, and the army, so ably led by General von Lettow Vorbeck, thought of the right idea to get the goods from the producers and dealers. Dr. Schnee (4) writes that bullion worth one million gold marks was available and this bullion was useless unless coined in some way.

The reason why the Germans issued the 15 Rupee coin was that in Zanzibar and British East Africa, where the Indian rupee was the legal tender, 15 Rupees were equal to 1 sovereign. The sovereign was very popular and to boost the confidence of the local traders, the Germans issued a coin which would ensure that they would receive the goods from the traders, to enable them to fight the war.

It has been remarked that the pieces were struck with dies made by an engraver of great skill and artistic ability. In fact it was thought at one time that the dies were made in Germany and smuggled into East Africa by submarine.

The reverse of the coin has an Imperial German eagle, same as the obverse of the 1 Pysa and German silver mark which were in general usage in German East Africa.

The obverse is something different. The design suggests an oriental quality.

However, I feel that the engraving is very poor on the obverse side. The left foreleg of the elephant is badly drawn. Most probably the engraver could not produce a good likeness of the Imperial portrait and used his own initiative. The engraver was from Ceylon, with great attachments with elephants and Tabora was at the time the Centre of Ivory Trade, so the choice of an elephant was not bad. Regarding the six mountains at the back much can be theorized but little proved.

16,198 pieces were made before the Belgians captured Tabora on 18 September 1916. There were two die varieties as follows:

- (1) Right Arabesque ends under A of OSTAFRIKA, mintage 6,395.
- (2) Right arabesque ends under TA of OSTAFRIKA, mintage 9,803.

According to translation in *Tanganyika Notes and Records* of Jaegar (5), the die which has scroll beneath the letters TA of OSTAFRIKA is a false reverse die, so according to him it means that more than half of the Tabora sovereigns are false.

I believe that the second die was not a forgery. The machinery used for minting was crude. In fact, according to the *Handbook of Tanganyika* (6), the stamping machinery broke down and the whole of July output of gold coins was stamped at the factory of the Ostafrikaniscene Olfatrik Gesellschaft at Lulanguru, with the aid of an oil press placed at the disposal of the government free of charge.

So the die must have broken making necessary another reverse die.

The Tabora sovereign held the fascination of all goldsmiths and collectors since the day it was minted. After the end of the war it became very popular with the British soldiers as a souvenir item. It reached the value of 200/- around 1924. Around this time the tale was spread by certain money lenders in Zanzibar that Vithaire had forged them in considerable quantities in Zanzibar and was sentenced to imprisonment in Zanzibar. However, this was not true but it served the purpose of the money changers undermining confidence in the inflated value as currency. One of the advantages of the popularity has been that very few were melted down for the gold.

However, tales do not die quickly and whenever I have inquired for a Tabora sovereign, I have been asked "Can you differentiate between the original and the counterfeit?".

Has anyone done light chemical analysis of the two varieties of the coins? Both the varieties have the same weight. So, if someone did forge the Tabora sovereign, what gold did he use, and how did he get the original obverse die?

References:

- (1) KRONBERG, a German ship, was sunk off the coast of Tanga, while TABORA was sunk in Dar-es-Salaam harbor.

- (2) Remick and others - *Catalogue of British Commonwealth Coins*, 3rd Edition.
- (3) Dr. G. S. P. Freeman Grenville, *Tanganyika Notes and Records*, p.50 Number 50, June 1958.
- (4) Dr. H. Schnee (then German governor of German East Africa). *Deutsch - Ostafrika in West Krige*, p.280 ff.
- (5) K. Jaegar, *Die Reichmunzen seit 1871* - Translation in *Tanganyika Notes and Records*, p.133, Number 52, March 1959.
- (6) 1st Edition (Ed. G. F. Sayers).
- (7) Dr. G. S. P. Freeman Grenville, op. cit.

Acknowledgement:

The author would like to thank the librarian of East African Natural History for loan of *Tanganyika Notes and Records*.

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